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ABSTRACT

Focusing on the effects of three interventions on students' reading and writing of persuasive discourse, a study investigated (1) whether the writing of persuasive discourse can be improved by instruction, and (2) the effect of reading on writing and of writing on reading within the persuasive mode. Subjects, 100 Canadian sixth graders stratified by sex and reading ability, received either instruction in a persuasion schema and writing practice (Group A), instruction in a persuasion schema and reading practice (Group B), or a single lesson in a persuasion schema (Group C). Subjects wrote a recall protocol of a persuasive reading as well as two persuasive compositions on a pretest/posttest basis. Findings showed that Groups A and B scored significantly higher than Group C on both writing quality and the number of conclusions and text markers used. Results also showed that Groups A and B scored significantly higher on the posttest in these areas than they did in the pretest. No differences were found between the three groups on reading recall scores, and no group showed a substantial improvement in this area from pretest to posttest. (Tables of data are included, and appendixes contain selected samples of pretest and posttest compositions, the pretest and posttest readings, and the follow-up writing and reading assignments.) (JD)

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THE EFFECT OF READING INSTRUCTION AND WRITING INSTRUCTION ON READING AND WRITING PERSUASION

Marion Crowhurst

Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Associaion, Washington, D.C., April, 1987.

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RUNNING HEAD: Reading/Writing

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Abstract

The study was designed to determine: a. whether the writing of persuasive discourse can be improved by instruction; and b. the effect of reading on writing and of writing on reading within the mode of persuasion. The specific question addressed was: Will sixth graders' ability to write and/or read persuasive discourse be improved by the following kinds of instruction:

1. instruction in a persuasion schema and writing practice;
2. instruction in a persuasion schema and reading practice;
3. a single lesson on a persuasion schema;

and will sixth graders who were thus instructed read and/or write persuasive discourse better than a control group?

Sixth-grade students in two schools were stratified by sex and reading ability and assigned by random procedures to one of three instructional groups, as described above, or to a control group, for ten 45-minute lessons over five weeks. Pretests and posttests consisted of writing a recall protocol of a persuasive reading and writing two persuasive compositions.

On the posttest, both the writing and reading+schema groups --but not the single-lesson-schema group--scored significantly higher than the control group on writing quality, and on the number of conclusions and text markers used, and scored significantly higher on the posttest than on the pretest on writing quality, conclusions, and text markers. There were no differences between the control group and other groups on reading recall scores, and no improvements for any group from pre to posttest.

This study examined the effect of three different interventions on sixth-grade students' writing and reading of persuasive discourse. The questions which prompted the study derive from three bodies of background literature: one dealing with the development of the ability to write persuasive discourse, a second dealing with reading/writing relationships, and a third dealing with schema theory as it relates to reading and writing.

Persuasive writing (or argumentation) is generally not well done (National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1977). Students write less and score lower grades for persuasion than for narration or description (Carlman, 1984; Crowhurst, 1987; 1980; Hidi & Hildyard, 1981; Rosen, 1969), and sometimes write narration when asked to persuade (Crowhurst, 1983; Wilkinson, Barnsley, Hanna, & Swan, 1980). One suggested reason for the difficulty of persuasive discourse is that it is more cognitively demanding than, for example, narration or description (Bereiter, 1978; Moffett, 1968). A second suggested reason is that students lack a schema for written persuasion (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1982). Bereiter and Scardamalia hypothesize that oral language schemata--acquired as a child engages in conversation from earliest years--must be adapted for the purposes of written discourse. Some schemata, like narrative, transfer easily from the oral mode to the written, while others, like persuasion, do not because they are heavily dependent in the oral mode on input from a conversational partner. To write successfully in the

persuasive mode, a child must develop a persuasion schema for written discourse that will enable him to produce autonomously, without the prompts that come in oral conversation from a conversational partner. If persuasive writing is badly done because it is cognitively too demanding, it might be difficult to improve by instruction. If, on the other hand, persuasive writing is badly done by young writers because they lack a schema for written persuasion, their writing might improve if they could be taught such a schema.

Though reading-writing relationships have received a surge of attention in the past decade, there is comparatively little research evidence about the exact nature of the inter-relationships between the two, or ways in which the teaching of one can facilitate skill in the other (Stotsky, 1984). That better writers tend to be better readers, and better readers tend to be better writers is supported both by the opinions of experienced teachers and by correlational studies which "suggest a modest general correlation between overall reading performance and writing achievement" (Tierney & Leys, 1984, p. 14; see also review in Stotsky, 1984). However, correlational studies shed no light on causation; they do not tell us whether more reading leads to better writing, whether more writing contributes to better reading, or whether both good reading and good writing are due to some more general language or cognitive ability.

A number of studies have found that writing of various kinds improves comprehension and retention of information. Paraphrasing, outlining, summarizing, and/or notetaking

(especially when it involves paraphrasing or summarizing) have been found to produce better comprehension and retention of expository text in subjects such as science and social studies in elementary school, high school, and college (Glover, Plake, Roberts, Zimmer, & Palmere, 1981; Bretzing & Kulhavy, 1979; Kulhavy, Dyer, & Silver, 1975; Taylor, 1978; Taylor & Berkowitz, 1980; Taylor & Beach, 1984).

Studies which have tried to improve writing through reading instruction (e.g., instruction in vocabulary, or in paragraph reading skills) have, generally, failed to find such improvement (see review in Stotsky, 1984). However, some studies have found that reading specific kinds of discourse (i.e., extra reading of a specific kind as against instruction in reading skills as referred to above) improved related types of writing. DeVries (1970) found that grade 5 students who, for nine weeks, did additional expository reading instead of writing, wrote better expository compositions at posttest time than students who wrote two themes a week. Bossone and Troyka (1976) found that instruction in the reading and writing of expository prose resulted in better writing of expository essays by 80 percent of their experimental students as against only 45 percent of students in the control group. Reading improved for their high school subjects, but not for college subjects. While it has been difficult, then, to show that reading, in general, improves writing, in general, some studies focusing on a particular kind of discourse have had significant results.

A promising direction for the examination of reading-writing

relationships is provided by schema theory. In the past decade, research and theory in a number of disciplines have contributed to the view that reading and composing are similar processes in that both require the active construction of meaning, such meaning construction being dependent upon prior knowledge structures or schemata (Anderson, 1977; Petrosky, 1982; Rumelhart, 1980; 1983; Tierney & Pearson, 1984). Reading and writing require not only knowledge of the topic, but also knowledge of rhetorical structures--story grammars, for example, and patterns of expository prose (Calfee & Curley, 1983; Crismore, 1982; Meyer, 1982; Squire, 1984).

Crismore (1982) suggests that knowledge of text structures might be developed through writing, that students who have learned to compose a certain type of text will more easily be able to comprehend material of that particular type (p. 236). Falk (1979), however, doubts that overt teaching of text types can succeed without substantial prior experience reading because the acquisition of writing is a form of natural language acquisition which "must be learned through the tacit internalization of patterns and principles that are acquired through extensive exposure to and practical experience with the use of language in actual, natural contexts and situations" (p.440).

While there is widespread agreement, then, about the fact that both reading and writing are constructive processes which are dependent on knowledge structures, there are somewhat differing opinions about how knowledge of rhetorical structures

can be facilitated by instruction.

Purpose of the Study

The present study was designed to shed light on the following questions:

1. Can sixth graders' ability to write persuasion be improved by instruction?

2. Will careful reading of persuasion, with systematic observation of the structure, be as successful in improving writing as instruction and practice in writing persuasion?

3. Will instruction and practice in writing persuasion be as successful as instruction and practice in reading persuasion in improving reading comprehension?

The specific hypotheses examined were as follows:

1. Groups receiving instruction in
    a. a persuasion schema plus practice writing persuasion
    b. a persuasion schema plus practice reading persuasion
    c. a single lesson in a persuasion schema

will have significantly higher posttest scores than the control group for: writing quality, the number of elaborations, text markers and conclusions--but not reasons--in compositions, and the number of propositions recalled in the reading test.

2. Groups a, b, and c in 1 above will have significantly higher posttest scores than pretest scores for: quality, elaborations, text markers and conclusions--but not reasons--in compositions, and the number of propositions recalled in the reading test.

Method

Subjects

Subjects were the students in two sixth grade classes in each of two schools (N = 110) in North Vancouver. Students in each class were separated by sex; in each class, each sex was rank-ordered on the basis of reading comprehension scores (obtained from the Gates McGinitie Test which was administered in September, 1985). Students were assigned, in order, to four instructional groups, beginning in one class with instructional group 1, in the second class with instructional group 2, in the third class with instructional group 3, and in the fourth class with instructional group 4. Seven students were eliminated from the final sample because they missed one or more pretests or posttests. To equalize groups, one student was randomly eliminated from each of three instructional groups. The final sample, then, was 100 students, 25 per group.

Materials

Two persuasive pieces were written for use as reading tests. Marvelous Manitoba was 259 words long and Los Angeles, was 256 words long; each had a Dale-Chall readability at the grade 5-6 level (formula raw scores of 5.2 and 5.6, respectively). The readings for the reading tests are presented in Appendix .

Printed assignment sheets were prepared for the four writing topics which were used as writing pretests and posttests. The four writing assignments are presented in Appendix B.

Procedure

Pretests and Posttests. One reading and two writing pretests and posttests were done, respectively, the week before and the week after the instructional period. Tests were administered to whole classes with 45 minutes allowed for each test. Reading tests involved writing a recall protocol of the assigned reading. Each of the writing tests involved writing a persuasive composition, there being two such compositions--each done on a separate day--for the pretest and two for the posttest. Writing assignments were administered by means of printed assignment sheets. Subjects in each ability group in each instructional group in each class were randomly assigned to either Group A or Group B. Orders of topics of reading and writing tests were counterbalanced for Groups A and B.

Interventions. Instruction--given for 45 minutes twice a week for five weeks--was as follows:

Group 1: In the first lesson, students were taught a schema for persuasion consisting of the following: statement of belief, reason for, supporting idea, conclusion (adapted from Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1982). The schema was presented on a chart and was explained and illustrated by a specially written piece of persuasion. In subsequent lessons they practiced writing persuasive pieces. Four persuasive pieces were written and revised. The general procedure was as follows. Students recalled and described the structural elements of persuasion as previously presented. Students brainstormed reasons, pro and con, for the topic of the day, for example, "It is wrong to keep whales in

captivity in an aquarium." Students wrote in support of either the pro or the con side. Student pairs checked one another's first drafts for various structural elements, also commenting on especially good reasons, and making suggestions for improvement as appropriate. Students wrote a revised version which received written teacher comment as to the persuasiveness of the composition and/or the effective use of various structural elements. Sample writing lessons are presented in Appendix B.

Group 2: In lesson 1, students were instructed, as above, in the persuasion schema. In each succeeding lesson, they had guided reading of a persuasive reading especially written for the study. Instruction focused on both structure and content of each reading. Students were asked, for example, to identify the sentence in the first paragraph which stated the writer's opinion on the topic, to pick out the first supporting reason, and so on. There were five pairs of persuasive readings, a pro and a con reading for each of five controversial questions. After completing the first reading of each pair, students discussed the persuasiveness of the reading, and suggested counter-arguments. After completing both readings, students discussed the topic, pro and con, and the relative persuasiveness of the two readings. Samples of persuasive readings and of reading lessons are presented in Appendix B.

Groups 3 and 4: Identical instruction was given to groups 3 and 4 except for one lesson in the last week. Students read novels and wrote book reports. Reports received written teacher response. In the last week--the week preceding the

posttests--group 3 was taken separately from group 4 and was taught the persuasion schema in a lesson identical to lesson 1 for groups 1 and 2 as described above.

Group 4 was planned to serve as a control group, a group which had no exposure at all to the schema. The purpose of group 3 was to allow a comparison between a group which was taught the schema and a group which, in addition to being taught the schema, had considerable experience reading pieces which exemplified the schema.

In one school, group 1 was taught by a student teacher, group 2 was taught by one of the classroom teachers, and groups 3 and 4, together, were taught by a graduate assistant who was an experienced teacher. In the second school, group 1 was taught by the graduate assistant, and group 2 and groups 3 and 4, together, were taught by the two classroom teachers. The single schema lesson presented to group 3 was taught in each school by the experimenter. All lessons presented were prepared by the experimenter. Samples of reading lessons and writing lessons are presented in Appendix B.

Scoring

Writing tests. Two types of scoring were done for the writing tests: a. a quality rating; and b. a count of structural elements.

a. Compositions--typed with spelling corrected--were assigned a holistic quality score from 1 to 6 by four experienced sixth-grade teachers. Raters received training in which compositions written on the same topics by other sixth graders were used. Raters were given criteria and models for each point on the six-point scale. In assigning scores, judges were asked to consider content, organization and structure, and expression

(usage, vocabulary, "voice", sentence structure). Topics 1 and 2, with pretests and posttests intermingled, were rated on one Saturday, topics 3 and 4 on a second Saturday. Inter-rater reliability for composition quality scores on the four topics, calculated using Ebel's (1979) formula, ranged from .90 to .94. Scores for the two pretest compositions were summed as were scores for the two posttest compositions. The minimum score per test was thus 8 and the maximum 48 (a score of 1 to 6 by each of four raters on each of two compositions).

b. Two trained graduate assistants identified and counted the following structural elements in each composition: reasons, elaborations of reasons, conclusions, text markers (such phrases as: "the first reasons is," "finally," etc.), and the number of words. Inter-rater agreement for structural elements was as follows: reasons, 80 percent; elaborations, 62 percent; conclusions, 80 percent; text markers, 89 percent.

Scores for reasons, elaborations of reasons, and text markers were divided by the number of words in the composition, and the result was multiplied by 100 to produce the number of reasons, elaborations or text markers per 100 words. Since there is normally only a single conclusion per composition--if, indeed, there is any conclusion at all--conclusions were not pro-rated per 100 words.

Reading tests. For each reading test, a template listing propositions was prepared by the investigator and a graduate assistant. Recall protocols were segmented into propositions by two trained graduate assistants with inter-rater agreement of 95

percent. Recall protocols were scored by two graduate assistants against the appropriate text template to determine the total number of propositions recalled. Paraphrased information was considered acceptable. Inter-rater agreement was 79.1 percent. Disagreements were resolved in consultation with the principal investigator.

Analysis of Data

Each dependent measure was analysed by a separate analysis of variance (ANOVA) in a 2 (test) x 4 (group) mixed design with repeated measures on the first factor.

For the writing tests, the dependent measures were:

a. writing quality scores;

b. the number of reasons per 100 words;

c. the number of elaborations per 100 words;

d. the number of text markers per 100 words;

e. the number of conclusions.

For the reading tests, the dependent measured was the number of propositions recalled.

Bonferroni *t* statistics were used to make planned pairwise comparisons between means, testing for significance at the .05 level. Pairs of means tested were as follows: (a) the pretest mean of the control group was compared with pretest means for each of the other groups; (b) the posttest mean of the control group was compared with posttest means for each of the other groups; and (c) pretest and posttest means for each of groups 1, 2 and 3 were compared.

Results

Writing

Quality. The ANOVA for writing quality revealed significant main effects for group and test, and a significant interaction between group and test. Results of the ANOVA are presented in Table 1. Planned pairwise comparisons using

INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

Bonferroni *t* statistics revealed that there was no difference between the control group and any of the other three groups on the pretest; on the posttest, each of groups 1 (writing) and 2 (reading+schema) scored significantly higher than the control group; further, groups 1 and 2 scored significantly higher on the posttest than on the pretest, but group 3 (schema+ literature) did not. These results indicate that the major source of differences between groups and between tests was the increase in scores from pretest to posttest for groups 1 and 2. Means and standard deviations for pretests and posttests for the four instructional groups are shown in Table 2.

INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE

Reasons. The ANOVA for the number of reasons per 100 words revealed no significant effects. Results of the ANOVA are presented in Table 1; and group means are presented in Table 2.

Elaborations. The ANOVA for the number of elaborations per 100 words revealed a significant main effect for test,

but no significant effect for group. Scores were higher for the posttest that for the pretest. Planned pairwise comparisons between means revealed a significant difference for only one pair: group 1 (writing) scored significantly higher on the posttest than on the pretest. ANOVA results and means are presented in Tables 1 and 2, respectively.

Conclusions. The ANOVA for the number of conclusions revealed significant main effects for group and test, and a significant interaction between group and test. Results of the ANOVA are presented in Table 1. Planned pairwise comparisons using Bonferroni *t* statistics revealed that there was no difference between the control group and any of the other three groups on the pretest; on the posttest, each of groups 1 (writing) and 2 (reading+schema) scored significantly higher than the control group; further, groups 1 and 2 scored significantly higher on the posttest than on the pretest, but group 3 (schema+ literature) did not. These results indicate that the major source of differences between groups and tests was the increase in scores from pretest to posttest for groups 1 and 2. Means and standard deviations for pretests and posttests for the four instructional groups are shown in Table 2.

Text markers. The ANOVA for the number of text markers per 100 words revealed significant main effects for group and test, and a significant interaction between group and test. Results of the ANOVA are presented in Table 1. Planned pairwise comparisons using Bonferroni *t* statistics revealed that, on the pretest, the control group scored significantly higher than groups 1

(writing) and 2 (reading+schema), but that on the posttest, groups 1 and 2 each scored significantly higher than the control group; further, each of groups 1, 2 and 3 (schema+literature) scored significantly higher on the posttest than on the pretest. These results indicate that the major source of differences between groups and tests was the increase in scores from pretest to posttest for groups 1, 2, and 3. Group means are presented in Table 2.

Reading

The ANOVA for the number of propositions recalled revealed no significant effects. Results of the ANOVA are presented in Table 1.

Discussion

The results of the study clearly support an affirmative response to the first research question: the persuasive writing of students in upper elementary school can be improved by instruction. Significant gains in writing quality scores from pretest to posttest were made by both the writing group and the reading+schema group: for the writing group the mean increase from pretest to posttest was 7.6, a 30 percent gain; for the reading+schema group, the mean increase was 5.5, a 23 percent gain. These gains may be compared with the negligible gains made by the schema+literature group and the control group (4 percent and 2 percent, respectively).

The second question to be answered was: Is reading persuasion, together with careful observation of the structure,

as successful in improving writing as instruction and practice in writing persuasion? This question also is to be answered in the affirmative. The reading+schema group, though it had no practice at writing, improved significantly from pretest to posttest in writing quality, and scored significantly higher on the posttest than the control group. No significent improvement was made by the schema+literature group which received careful instruction in the persuasion schema the week prior to the posttest. It is concluded, therefore, that it was not merely instruction in the schema which produced the improvement in writing quality, but the internalization of that schema through the reading of pieces which exemplified the schema.

Examination of the various kinds of text elements used gives some indication of the kinds of differences between the posttest essays of the reading+schema and writing groups and the control group. Most noticeably, they used significantly more conclusions and text markers. While there was no significant difference between groups in the number of elaborations, the number of elaborations in posttest compositions was higher in the writing and reading+schema groups than in the control group; and, for the writing group, there was a significant increase from pretest to posttest, the number of elaborations doubling from the one to the other.

Elaborations were the most difficult text elements for the scorers to identify with reliability; as reported above, inter-rater agreement was lowest for this text element. Segments were counted as elaborations if they expanded upon and explained

more fully a previously given reason, if they gave examples, or if they gave a supporting reason for a reason. However, when students attempted to say more about a reason, the effort was not always successful. Sometimes the addition was repetitious; sometimes the meaning was not clear; it was sometimes difficult to determine whether a segment was a new reason or an elaboration of a reason previously given. For example, one student writing about whether or not homework should be assigned, wrote:

> Example 1: . . . I think that homework is a waste of time because some people I know are not as fast as others. . .

Clearly, the underlined clause has the appearance of a reason for his reason against homework (that it is a waste of time); however it is not easy to see how the clause relates to the reason. The meaning is not clear.

Another student, writing about whether or not sixth graders should receive a monthly clothing allowance, wrote:

> Example 2: . . . They would appreciate their clothing a lot more and therefore it would be well taken care of. They would get the "in" clothes they want. They would feel that they weren't forced to wear any special clothes.

It is not clear whether the underlined sentence is intended as a further explanation of the preceding sentence, or whether it is a new and separate reason.

Finding cogent support for arguments is a demanding cognitive activity. It is not surprising that young writers should experience difficulty with this task. The schema which was

taught might have been expected to serve as an aid to students in organizing their ideas, and also as a prompt to them to try to develop their reasons rather than merely stating them baldly. It seems to have served both these purposes for many students in the writing and reading+schema groups. It is clear that more of them attempted to elaborate reasons than was the case for students in the control group. Examples of such attempts to elaborate being made in posttests, whereas they were not in pretests, may be seen in Appendix A, where compositions written by students in the writing and reading+schema groups are presented. Writer 1, for example, an able writer who received high quality scores on both the pretest and the posttest--though higher on the posttest--wrote a pretest composition (Pretest 1) which consisted of a list of baldly stated reasons. Though the reasons are rather good ones, the composition has the list-like sound which commonly characterizes persuasive compositions written by young writers. In Posttest 1, the writer uses fewer reasons, but each is more fully developed. There is a less "breathless" feel about the second composition. Similar comments might be made about the other pairs of compositions in Appendix A. The schema, then, seems to have prompted students to attempt to elaborate.

A second value of the schema seems to have been as an aid in organizing material. Pretest compositions commonly ran from one reason to the next without clearly marking where one ended and the next began. Often there was no separation into pararaphs. Moreover, student usually omitted the kinds of sentence connectives which would have helped readers to determine whether

or not a sentence was intended to be logically connected with the previous sentence--a tendency of young writers which has been noted by others, (Perera, 1984; Crowhurst, 1987b). Posttest compositions of the writing and reading+schema groups were more often organized into paragraphs for separate reasons; the paragraphs, moreover, were more often marked by textmarkers. The schema seems to have served as an organizational device for many of the writers, who tried to group related ideas together.

The schema, then, seems to have given to many students in the writing and the reading+schema groups the kinds of assistance it might have been expected to give: it served as a prompt to elaborate and as an organizational device. However, the schema could not be expected to help them with the difficult cognitive task of generating cogent arguments, or with the task of expressing themselves clearly and effectively.

It is to be noted that students in the writing and reading groups did not use more reasons; indeed, most reasons at posttest time were used by the control group. As noted above, it is characteristic of the persuasive writing of many young writers that they provide a list of reasons, unexplained and unsupported. It was expected that instruction in the schema would not produce more reaons but would encourage elaboration of the reasons which were given.

The third question of the study was not supported. Indeed, neither writing nor reading instruction improved scores on the reading test. It may be that the test was at fault since it may be argued that it tested memory rather than reading comprehension.

In summary, then, two of the three question of the study may be asnwered in the affirmative. Instruction based on a persuasion schema was effective in improving the persuasive writing of sixth graders. Large gains in composition quality scores were made both by students who practiced writing, following the schema, and by students who read persuasive pieces which exemplified the schema even though they did no writing.

Implications

The present study provides clear evidence that sixth graders' ability to write persuasion can be improved by instruction. This is not to deny that persuasive writing is cognitively difficult. Instruction appears to have helped writers by prompting them to elaborate reasons and to organize their compositions. It could not help them with the difficult conitive task of thinking of <u>coqent</u> reasons and logically supporting them.

The present study should not be interpreted as advocating the teaching of "the five-paragraph essay" to sixth graders. The focus of the study was more theoretical than pedagogical, though, certainly, there are pedagogical implications. The posttest essays of the writing and reading+schema groups were judged superior to their pretest essays and superior to the essays of the control group. It must be said, however, that many of the essays of the two superior groups seemed rather stereotyped. A program designed to teach students in the school system to persuade on paper must present them with a much more highly elaborated "schema" than the simple one used in this experiment,

though the lessons used in this study might be a start. Students must learn that there are many different ways of elaborating and supporting reasons, and many different ways of persuading--that irony and allegory, for example, may persuade as well as, and sometimes better than, reasons clearly stated and well supported.

Perhaps the most interesting and important finding of the study is that large gains were made by the reading + schema group despite the fact that they did no writing at all. The proposition that wide reading improves writing, though widely believed, is difficult to prove--and understandably so. Improvement in writing generally occurs very slowly. If wide reading improves writing, such improvement can be expected to happen only over long periods of time, such long periods of time, with so many factors interacting, that the effects of reading upon writing are difficult to prove. If the effects of reading upon writing are to be demonstrated, it seems likely that very limited arenas must be chosen for the demonstration--as, indeed, was done in the research here reported. However, the fact that students transferred knowledge gained from reading to writing in the case of this single, narrow discourse type may be taken as a small piece of evidence for the more general proposition that reading affects writing. Many more such small pieces of evidence may be required. One can imagine other, related studies--also rather narrow in scope--which might contribute.

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TABLE 1

Analyses of Variancece for Reading and Writing Scores, Reasons, Elaborations, Conclusions and Text Markers

Analysis	Source	df	MS	F
Writing Quality	Mean	1	134369.28	1558.24***
	Group	3	336.16	3.90**
	Error	96	86.23	
	Test (Pre/Post)	1	648.00	23.11***
	Test x Group	3	152.16	5.43**
	Error	96	28.04	
Reading Recall	Mean	1	276842.41	636.23***
	Group	3	826.25	1.90
	Error	96	435.13	
	Test (Pre/Post)	1	198.01	1.73
	Test x Group	3	165.77	1.44
	Error	96	114.73	
Reasons	Mean	1	1512.67	592.96***
	Group	3	1.49	0.58
	Error	96	2.55	
	Test (Pre/Post)	1	0.05	0.05
	Test x Group	3	2.05	1.94
	Error	96	1.06	
Elaborations	Mean	1	180.537	323.49***
	Group	3	0.33	0.59
	Error	96	0.56	
	Test (Pre/Post)	1	8.20	27.51***
	Test x Group	3	0.51	1.72
	Error	96	0.30	
Conclusions	Mean	1	153.13	174.09***
	Group	3	2.31	2.63*
	Error	96	0.88	
	Test (Pre/Post)	1	7.61	18.27***
	Test x Group	3	1.65	3.95**
	Error	96	0.42	

Text Markers	Mean	1	67.527	97.27***
	Group	3	2.03	2.93*
	Error	96	0.69	
	Test (Pre/Post)	1	19.59	53.89***
	Test x Group	3	4.69	12.90***
	Error	96	0.36	

***--Significant at or beyond the .001 level.
**--Significant at or beyond the .01 level.
*--Significant at or beyond the .05 level.

TABLE 2

Means and Standard Deviations for Writing Quality and Conclusions and for Reasons, Elaborations, and Text Markers per 100 Words for Four Groups

		Group			
		Writing	Reading+ Schema	Schema+ Literature	Literature (Control)
Writing quality	Pre	25.4(7.6)	23.7(5.9)	24.7(6.5)	22.7(7.2)
	Post	33.0(10.4)	29.2(8.0)	25.6(6.7)	23.2(7.1)
Reasons per 100 words	Pre	2.7(0.8)	3.0(1.8)	2.5(1.4)	2.7(1.4)
	Post	2.6(1.2)	2.6(1.2)	2.6(1.2)	3.2(1.6)
Elaborations per 100 words	Pre	0.7(0.5)	0.8(0.7)	0.8(0.6)	0.7(0.6)
	Post	1.4(0.7)	1.2(0.7)	1.1(0.6)	0.9(0.7)
Conclusions	Pre	0.8(0.8)	0.6(0.8)	0.6(0.8)	0.7(0.8)
	Post	1.5(0.8)	1.3(0.8)	0.8(0.8)	0.7(0.9)
Text Markers per 100 words	Pre	0.2(0.4)	0.1(0.3)	0.3(0.6)	0.4(0.4)
	Post	1.2(0.9)	1.4(1.2)	0.5(0.7)	0.4(0.8)

APPENDIX A

SELECTED SAMPLES OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST COMPOSITIONS

PRETEST 1 (High ability student)

I don't think homework should be cut out of elementary schools for many reasons. First of all when you get to high school you will have homework, and so it will help you be ready for it. Homework might also make you more responsible. It helps you remember things before you go to school the next day. If you do homework at night it will leave more time during school to do fun things. The school year might have to be longer if there wasn't homework because you would have to do that work during school time. You might understand it more if you are doing it at home and at school. You might be able to do your work faster because you would have more practice. Homework will also give you something to do. Those are a few reasons why I think we should have homework in elementary schools.

POSTTEST 1

I think that intermediate students should be allowed to go in the forest beside the school.

First of all, it isn't unsafe. We could have aids there to watch us during recess and lunch. Students could play in groups of two or more. Already some stairs have been put in. The stairs have made it a lot safer.

Secondly, you can have a lot more fun playing there. You can play games that you can't play on the field. You can hide behind trees and play many games.

Another reason is that you can learn things by playing there. You can learn about animals and nature. If you don't play there you might not know as much.

I think we should definitely be allowed to play there because we can learn and have more fun.

PRETEST 2 (Below average student)

There is one thing about the school that I think it would make it perfectly wonderful and that is an Exercise Place! I know you are going to argue with me and plus you don't know me very well but I have very good reasons. Some of them are = The teachers are getting fat and they need an exercise place. When it's cold outside the children can come in and swim or go in the hot tub. You could also hold a swimming club and race against other schools. We also would be the best known school in Vancouver and maybe farther. You may think of the cost but the people at school could help make it. Plus you could make lots of money for winning races. Can you think we could be well known all over the world!

PRETEST 2

I think that homework should not be cut out for elementary school children because when you get homework you learn more things.

One of my reasons is that children do not learn if they don't get any homework. If children don't finish work in school time and you don't have to do it for homework then you'd have to do it the next day and you wouldn't be able to finish the work that was assigned for that day!

Another reason is that if children didn't have any homework then they would just hang around places, like the mall or they would just sit and watch T.V. all day. There would probably start to be problems like vandalizing and people stealing things.

Thirdly you would probably not do very well in high school and wouldn't be able to get a good job.

That is why I think that children in elementary school should have homework because they won't learn, kids will hang around everywhere, and they probably won't get a good job.

PRETEST 3 (Average-to-good student)

No I do not think children should be allowed to come to school and do whatever they liked, because you wouldn't get any education to get a job, and if you didn't have a job how would you support yourself. And if you should be allowed to come to school, only at school you could do whatever you wanted to, you might as well not come at all, and if you didn't come at all, you wouldn't have many friends, and if you didn't have many friends, it would be very boring. And above all you probably wouldn't get very much discipline and that's my opinion.

POSTTEST 3

Yes I do think sixth graders should have fifty dollars clothing allowance.

My first reason is you can go to the stores you want and not the stores your mother wants to go to. Also if you are alone when you go you won't have your mother nagging about what kind of clothes you should get, and at the price.

Secondly, you could go with your friends. That way you could get the same styles and stuff as your friends. Also it's more fun with someone your own age.

Thirdly, you're not rushing. With your parents, it's always, "We have to go to the bank; we left the dog in the car; or I have to work so we only have an hour till the store closes." So it's much easier.

So you can go to the stores you want, shop for the clothes you want, go with your friends and not be in a rush, so I definitely think you should get a fifty dollar allowance each month for clothing.

PRETEST 4 (Average student)

I think that homework should be cut from primary elementary students because they are young and too little to do homework. But I think intermediate students should have homework because they have to get ready for high school. Intermediates should have homework because there is a lot of work to do in the year and too little time to do it, but the primaries don't have that many things to do. I have talked to other people and they feel the same way about it as I do.

POSTTEST 4

I think that we should have a swimming pool in our school. This is the way I feel and many others.

My first reason is that during the summer and spring kids get hot and that distracts them from concentrating on their work. If there was a swimming pool then we could cool off and concentrate on my work.

Secondly we could have swimming lessons for gym and that would please the parents and also it would be a lot of fun.

Thirdly, during winter the water would freeze and then the school could skate on it.

The concentration, the lessons and skating are only three reasons but there are a lot more and that is why I feel that we should definitely have a swimming pool in our school

APPENDIX B

1. Readings for Pretests and Posttests
   a. Marvellous Manitoba
   b. Los Angeles

2. Writing Assignments for Pretests and Posttests

3. Persuasive Readings
   a. No Ban on Smoking
   b. No Smoking
   c. The Need for Capital Punishment
   d. No Capital Punishment

4. Reading Lessons
   a. Reading Lesson No. 1
   b. Reading Lesson No. 2
   c. Reading Lesson No. 9
   d. Reading Lesson No. 10

5. Writing Lessons
   a. Writing Lesson No. 1
   b. Writing Lesson No. 2
   c. Writing Lesson No. 3
   d. Writing Lesson No. 4

MARVELLOUS MANITOBA

Many people think that Manitoba would be a terrible place to live. Its summers are short. Its winters are long and bitterly cold. But Manitoba is really a marvellous place to live.

In the first place, Manitoba is very beautiful. It has thousands of lakes and forests. Sunsets on the prairies are spectacular. In summer there are golden wheat fields. In winter, the snow on the evergreens makes the world seem like a fairyland.

Secondly, Manitoba is a friendly place. Prairie people are good neighbours. They help one another in all kinds of ways. Their helpful ways began in the early days when people had to cooperate in order to survive.

A third good thing about Manitoba is that the weather, on the whole, is very pleasant. There are very few rainy days. Manitoba gets more hours of sunlight each year than most other parts of North America. It is true that summers are short. But the days are long and hot, and nights are usually cool. The snow in winter makes for lots of fun. Manitobans like to ski and skate and go tobogganing.

Finally, Manitoba is a healthy place to live. This is partly because it is not overcrowded. There is little pollution, and the crime rate is low. Life expectancy in Manitoba is high. Some people jokingly say that Manitoba is healthy because it is too cold for germs to survive there.

Manitoba offers great beauty, friendly people, and interesting variety in the weather. It is also a healthy place. Manitoba is, indeed, a great place to live.

LOS ANGELES

Many people think it would be great to live in Los Angeles. It is warm in winter. There are interesting places to go, like Disneyland. But Los Angeles is really a bad place to live.

One bad thing about Los Angeles is its traffic problems. It is a huge city of ten million people. Most people travel by car because public transportation is poor. The city has many freeways. But highways are often crowded with cars, especially in peak hours. Driving in Los Angeles can be very unpleasant.

Secondly, Los Angeles has a high crime rate. A serious crime takes place every few minutes. In many parts of the city it is not safe to take a walk after dark. People have to lock their doors and windows even when they are at home.

A third bad thing about Los Angeles is smog. Smog is caused by fumes from cars and factories. It pollutes the air. It irritates the eyes. It makes it hard to breathe. Sometimes, when smog is very bad, people with breathing problems are warned to stay at home.

Finally, Los Angeles summers are very hot and dry. The temperature is often more than thirty degrees Celsius. There is almost no rain. Grass turns brown unless it is watered each day. A film of dust seems to cover everything. Sometimes the city runs short of water.

People who live in Los Angeles have many problems. These problems are heavy traffic, smog caused by factories and cars, high crime, and hot, dry summers. Los Angeles is certainly not a good place to live.

WRITING ASSIGNMENTS FOR PRETESTS AND POSTTESTS

1. Do you think that homework should be cut out for elementary school children? Write a composition to your principal and tell him what you think. Use all the reasons you can think of to persuade him.

2. Do you think that children should be allowed to come to school when they want to and do whatever they like when they get there? Write a composition to your principal and tell him what you think. Use all the reasons you can think of to persuade him.

3. Do you think that sixth graders should be given a clothing allowance of fifty dollars each month so that they can buy their own clothes? Some parents are wondering if this would be a good idea. They are interested to know what you think. Write a composition for these parents and tell them if you think a fifty-dollar clothing allowance is a good idea for sixth graders. Use all the reasons you can think of to persuade them.

4 Think of one thing about your school that you think should be changed. Write a composition to your principal and tell him what you think. Use all the reasons you can think of to persuade him.

NO BAN ON SMOKING

People who do not smoke often complain about those who do. They argue that smokers fill the air with dirty, harmful smoke. Of course, anyone has the right to ban smoking in their own home. But should smoking in a public place be banned? The answer is no. Smoking in public places should not be banned. There are a number of reasons why this is so.

In the first place, if smoking is banned in public places, smokers' rights will be taken away. Smoking is not illegal. It is an individual's right to choose to smoke. So non-smokers who feel that their right to clean air is being taken away when smoking is allowed must remember that, if smoking is banned in public places, smokers' rights will be taken away. Public places are meant to be enjoyed by everyone, including smokers.

Secondly, passing laws against smoking is too strong a measure. It is too strong because smoking is one of those small annoyances that people must put up with. One has to put up with many small annoyances caused by other people--annoyances like loud music on the beach, crying babies in church, and honking car horns. People cannot expect legal action to be taken against every little thing that annoys them.

A third reason against such a law is that there are other ways of protecting the rights of non-smokers without interfering with the rights of smokers. One way is to have different areas for smokers and non-smokers. Many places such as restaurants and planes already have separate smoking and non-smoking areas. Another way of dealing with the rights of

smokers and non-smokers is for both to practise courtesy. Non-smokers should be tolerant of the needs of smokers. Smokers should be considerate. They should not smoke in places where food is served so as not to spoil people's meals. They should not smoke in small, enclosed places, such as elevators, where smoking is more likely to bother other people. They should ask permission to smoke if they are with non-smokers. If they are asked to put out their cigarette because the smoke bothers somebody, they should do so. Quite often, common courtesy is all that is needed to solve problems between smokers and non-smokers.

Non-smokers often claim that smoking should be banned for health reasons. However, claims that smoking injures health are exaggerated. It is true that tobacco smoke is not healthy to breathe. But the amount that a non-smoker breathes in is so small that it is not likely to cause harm. There are so many other pollutants in the air, such as gasoline fumes and industrial waste, that tobacco smoke does not make much difference. There might be a few places where smoking might damage health, like hospitals, for example, where people may be especially weak and sensitive. But, generally, smoking in public places need not be banned for health reasons.

There could even be dangerous results from banning smoking in public places. People who normally smoke a lot are often nervous and excitable if they are not allowed to smoke. To calm themselves, they may sneak to a quiet place like a washroom or hallway for a cigarette. If there are no ashtrays and they are careless with their butts, a fire could easily start. This

actually happened recently on an airplane where smoking was not allowed. A passenger sneaked to the restroom for a cigarette and accidentally set the wastepaper basket on fire. Luckily, the fire was quickly discovered and put out. Otherwise, many people might have been killed. If smoking had been allowed on the plane and if ashtrays had been provided, the fire would probably never have happened at all. Sometimes it is safer to allow smoking than to ban it.

Smoking in public places should definitely not be banned. An individual has the right to choose to smoke. Smoke is not as dangerous to health as non-smokers claim. There are other ways to protect the rights of non-smokers. There is no need for such a law.

NO SMOKING

Smoking in public places should be banned. In the last ten years or so, laws have been passed to protect non-smokers from the smoke of others. For example, smoking is already banned in many public places such as buses, grocery stores, and movie theatres. Other public places such as restaurants and airplanes have separate smoking and non-smoking areas. But these laws do not go far enough. Smoking should be forbidden in all public places.

One important reason for banning smoking in public places is that it goes against other people's right to enjoy a clean environment. Careless smokers spill ashes about. They leave ugly, foul-smelling cigarette butts lying in ash trays, or littering the ground. Smoking pollutes the air which others must breathe. The smell of smoke hangs in the air. The unpleasant odour clings to the clothes and hair of non-smokers as well as smokers. Breathing in smoke while you are eating can spoil the taste of food. Smokers should not have the right to spoil the pleasure of others by polluting the air of restaurants and other public places.

Another important reason for banning smoking in public places is that it is dangerous to health. Medical studies in the past twenty years provide strong reasons for believing that smoking endangers health. Lung cancer is only one of several illnesses caused by smoking. Studies also show that breathing in second hand smoke which has been breathed out by a smoker is dangerous as well. What is more, smoke from a burning cigarette end

left in an ash tray is even more harmful than smoke that is inhaled straight from a cigarette. More harm may be done to a person close to such a burning butt than to the smoker himself! People have the right to choose to ruin their own health by smoking. But no one has the right to risk someone else's health.

A third reason for banning smoking is that smokers' careless smoking habits endanger other people's safety. There have been a number of cases where smokers have started serious fires by throwing butts in wastepaper baskets or leaving cigarettes burning in public washrooms. Recently, a Canadian plane filled with passengers almost had to make a crash landing because a careless smoker started a fire in a washroom. There must be more restrictions on smoking for safety reasons.

Many smokers think that smoking should not be banned because such a ban would take away their human rights. But many restrictions are necessary in civilized society. For example, no driver is permitted to drive a car along city streets at 200 kilometres an hour. Nobody should have the right to behave in a way that endangers others.

Smoking should not be allowed in public places because it interferes with the right of non-smokers to have a healthy, clean, pleasant environment. Smokers should be allowed to smoke in private, or out in the open air. They should certainly not be allowed to smoke in enclosed public places.

THE NEED FOR CAPITAL PUNISHMENT

At one time it was common in Canada for murderers to be hanged. But, in 1976, the Canadian Government voted to abolish capital punishment. In fact, the last person to be actually executed for murder was hanged nearly twenty years earlier, in 1959. It is time the death penalty was brought back. Execution should be a possible punishment for particularly vicious killers.

One reason for allowing capital punishment is that there are people who have committed such terrible crimes that they do not deserve to live. An example is Clifford Robert Olson who was convicted of murder in 1982. He killed eleven children and teenagers just for thrills. When news of his wicked acts was published in British Columbia, there was an outcry from the public. Many people said that he was an animal, not a man, and that he did not deserve to live.

A second reason for bringing back capital punishment is cost. The cost of keeping a man like Olson in a maximum security prison is approximately $50,000.00 a year. This amounts to well over a million dollars for twenty-five years. Since Olson is only in his early forties, and since he is never to be released, the cost of keeping him in prison for the rest of his life may well amount to over two million dollars. It is not right that the people of Canada should pay so much to keep alive such a twisted, worthless man who has killed so many innocent young people. And Olson is not the only multiple murderer being kept

in prison for life at great cost.

A third reason for bringing back capital punishment is that life imprisonment is considered by some to be just as cruel a punishment as death. It is true that death is more permanent. But to be deprived of freedom for twenty-five years or more makes life seem not worth living. Some prisoners who have been sentenced to life imprisonment say that they would rather have a quick death by means of hanging that a "living death" for twenty-five years.

Another reason for bringing back capital punishment is that the work of the police and prison guards is harder and more dangerous if there is no death penalty. If a dangerous prisoner who is trying to escape knows that he will not be executed no matter what he does, he is likely to think that he might as well kill any guard who gets in his way. Similarly, criminals are more likely to kill a policeman in order to escape capture if they know that they will not be put to death. Most policemen and prison guards across Canada support a return of the death penalty. Since our safety depends on policemen and prison guards, we should do what is necessary to help them do their work.

A final reason for bringing back capital punishment is that a big majority of Canadians support it. A recent Gallop poll on capital punishment reported that 70 per cent of those interviewed said that they wanted capital punishment brought back. The Government should take notice of the wishes of the majority.

If capital punishment is brought back, it will not mean that

everyone convicted of murder will be executed. Only the most vicious and hopeless cases would be hanged. But the threat that they might be executed would be likely to make criminals think twice before they kill.

It is a terrible thing to have to put a person to death. However, there are some people so bad that they do not deserve to live. Moreover, the cost of imprisoning a prsoner for life is very high, and that punishment is considered by some to be as cruel as hanging. Finally, the threat of capital punishment may stop criminals and prisoners from killing policemen and prison guards; if they know they are not going to be executed, they are more likely to kill to give themselves a better chance of escaping. For these reasons it is essential that capital punishment be restored as a possible punishment.

NO CAPITAL PUNISHMENT

Shortly after midnight on April 28, 1959, Leo Mantha was hanged at Oakalla prison. He was the last murderer to be hanged in Canada. Seventeen years later, in 1976, Canada officially abolished capital punishment. This means that, in Canada, no one can be executed as a punishment, no matter how vicious the crime. Recently, many people have been insisting that the death penalty should be brought back. This must never be allowed to happen.

One reason why capital punishment must never be reintroduced is that it turns all of us into killers. When a prisoner is executed, it means he is killed by the people of Canada, by all the people of Canada including you and me. The fact that a murderer has killed someone does not mean that it is right to kill him in return. Two wrongs do not make a right. If it is wrong to kill, it is always wrong to kill. It is as wrong for us to kill him as it was for him to kill in the first place.

Another reason why capital punishment must be opposed is that mistakes are sometimes made. If a person is mistakenly declared guilty, there is no way to reverse the wrong decision if that person has been executed. In the past year, two Canadians were released from prison after it was discovered that they had been wrongly convicted of violent crimes which formerly received the death sentence. A man from the Maritimes had served eleven years in prison because of a mistake, and a man from Vancouver had served eight years. Such mistakes are a terrible injustice. But how much worse it would have been if these men had been

executed and then been found to have been innocent. Such executions of innocent people have happened in the past. If capital punishment is brought back, they will happen again.

A third reason for abolishing capital punishment forever is that it is doubtful that the death penalty really deters people from murdering. It might prevent a few deaths, but most murders are committed in the heat of blind anger, or under the influence of alcohol. In such situations, people are not usually able to stop and think about what is going to happen to them.

When particularly dreadful crimes occur, people's minds usually turn to harsher punishment. This happened in British Columbia a few years ago when vicious child-killer, Clifford Olson, was tried for multiple murder. There were many people who said that he did not deserve to live and that he should be executed to rid the world of a dangerous animal. Calls for a return to capital punishment were heard again when six policemen were killed recently in separate incidents in Ontario and Quebec within a two-month period. However, such an important matter as the reintroduction of capital punishment should not be decided on the basis of emotion.

Capital punishment is wrong. It is wrong because it makes all of us into killers. It is wrong because people are sometimes wrongly convicted, and, once executed, they can never be brought back to life. It is wrong because there is no proof that it stops people from murdering. All thinking people must oppose the reintroduction of the death penalty.

READING LESSON NO. 1

TITLE: No Ban on Smoking.

AIM: To teach students to understand and recognize the various structural elements of persuasive writing.

OBJECTIVES:

1. Students will learn the nature and function of the following structural elements of persuasive writing:

   a. Statement of belief
   b. Reason for
   c. Supporting idea for reason for
   d. Conclusion

2. Students will read the persuasive reading, "No Ban on Smoking" and will identify the above structural elements in the piece.

STEP 1: INTRODUCTION

Talk about occasions when it is important to be able to persuade. The following examples may be used:

a. The summing up by the Crown Prosecutor or the Counsel for the Defence in a trial. This is a persuasive speech which the lawyer has probably written out in preparation for delivering it in court. Point out that the accused person's freedom will often depend on how persuasive the lawyer is in summing up the evidence which has been presented.

b. If you have had bad service from a company--suppose, for example, you have bought a new car, or a computer and it turns out to be a lemon--getting fair treatment often depends on being able to write a letter of complaint in which you persuade the company that they should remedy the situation.

c. Every citizen has the right to express his or her views about any matter at all. This is often done in a Letter to the Editor of a newspaper such as the Vancouver Sun in which the writer tries to persuade other readers to agree with his or her point of view.

d. Another way of expressing your views is to write to your Member of Parliament to express your views about legislation that the Government is planning.

In all of these cases, success depends on being able to state a case with good reasons and supporting ideas. For the next five weeks you are going to read persuasive readings in order to learn how a persuasive essay is composed.

STEP 2: THE STRUCTURE OF PERSUASIVE DISCOURSE

Say: You have often been told that a story has a beginning, a development which leads up to a climax, and an ending. (Note that this cannot be used if you have not covered this with them.) A piece of persuasive writing is made up of the following. Write the following outline on the chalkboard:

A STATEMENT OF BELIEF:	Usually in first paragraph. Tells what the writer is trying to persuade other people about.
REASON FOR SUPPORT:	There may be 3 or more reasons. Explains more about the reason for. May give examples.
REASON FOR SUPPORT	
REASON FOR SUPPORT	
CONCLUSION:	Comes at the end. Sums up. Often repeats the STATEMENT OF BELIEF in different words and often with an intensifying word or phrase.

STEP 3: PERSUASIVE READING

1. Distribute reading: "No Ban on Smoking." Make sure they understand the meaning of "ban".

2. Statement of Belief: Say: Read the first paragraph and see if you can find the sentence that gives the STATEMENT OF BELIEF. (ANS. "Smoking should not be banned.") Have them underline this sentence, and write in the left hand margin against this line: "Statement of Belief".

3. Reasons For: Say: See if you can find the first reason why smoking should not be banned. (ANS. "Smokers' rights will be taken away.") Have them underline these words, and write in the left hand margin: "Reason 1."

Ask: How does the writer support this reason? They should reply by reading the various other sentences in this second paragraph. Point out that all of this paragraph is really just saying the same thing in different words, i.e., the writer is ELABORATING ON or EXPLAINING what he/she means by the REASON FOR.

Tell them to read the rest of the reading and see how many REASONS FOR they can find. Tell them they will usually find the REASON FOR near the beginning of a paragraph, and supporting statements in the rest of the paragraph.

As students offer the various reasons, after reading the passage, they should underline each reason and write "Reason 2", "Reason 3", etc. in the margin as was done for Reason 1. Sentences to be so marked are as follows:

Reason 2	"Passing laws against smoking is too strong a measure."
Reason 3	"There are other ways of protecting the rights of non-smokers."
Reason 4	"There could be dangerous results from banning smoking in public places."

4. Supporting Ideas: Ask students how the writer supports reasons 2, 3 and 4.

5. Statement on Other Side: The paragraph beginning "Non-smokers often claim . . ." on page 2 requires special treatment. Some student may suggest part of this paragraph as a REASON FOR. Whether or not this happens, you should tell them there is a special and rather clever way of stating a REASON FOR. A writer sometimes makes a STATEMENT ON THE OTHER SIDE (e.g., ". . . smoking should be banned. . ."), supported by a REASON ON THE OTHER SIDE (e.g., ". . .for health reasons"). Then the writer answers the STATEMENT and REASON ON THE OTHER SIDE.

6. Conclusion: Finally, ask someone to find and read the CONCLUSION. Draw attention to the STATEMENT OF BELIEF repeated in the CONCLUSION ("Smoking in public places should definitely not be banned.") and to the intensifying word ("definitely"). Have them write "Conclusion" in the margin against the first line of the last paragraph.

Point out that the rest of the conclusion is made up by repeating, in different words, the main REASONS FOR which have already been stated above.

STEP 4: DISCUSSION AND PREPARATION FOR NEXT LESSON

The remainder of the time may be spent discussing the content of the piece, whether or not it is convincing, etc. Also ask if they can think of any reasons on the other side. Note that this is in preparation for the next lesson which is a a persuasive piece on the other side.

READING LESSON NO. 2

TITLE: No Smoking

AIM: To have students continue to develop their ability to recognize the structure of a persuasive reading.

OBJECTIVES:

1. Students will identify the following structural elements in the reading:

    a. The statement of belief.
    b. Three reasons for.
    c. Supporting ideas for each reason for.
    d. A statement and reason on the other side.
    e. The conclusion.

2. Students will discuss the content of the reading and the extent of its persuasiveness. (Minor time to this.)

STEP 1: INTRODUCTION

Remind students that they are studying persuasive writing. Ask what element usually comes in the first paragraph of a piece of persuasive writing. (ANS: Statement of belief.) Ask what other elements of persuasive writing they can remember. Have them describe the function of each of: reason for, supporting ideas, and conclusion. Display chart with elements of persuasive writing on it. (To be provided.)

STEP 2: PERSUASIVE READING

1. Distribute reading: "No Smoking."

2. Statement of Belief: Say: Read the first paragraph and see if you can find the sentence that gives the STATEMENT OF BELIEF. Note that in this piece, the statement of belief is given twice in the first paragraph: in the first sentence ("Smoking in public places should be banned") and in the last sentence ("Smoking should be forbidden in all public places").

3. Reasons For: Tell students to read through the reading and to see if they can find the major reasons this writer gives for saying that smoking should be banned. Refer to the outline on the chart and remind them that you want major reasons, not supporting information.

After students have read, ask for the first reason, and, when it is given, have children underline the words in their reading (". . .it goes against other people's right to enjoy a clean environment"). Have them write "Reason 1" in the left-hand margin against the line that contains these words.

Draw attention to the fact that the writer has given them help in identifying the first reason, i.e., "One important reason for banning smoking. . .'

Follow the same procedure for Reason 2 (". . .it is dangerous to health") and Reason 3 (". . .smokers' careless habits endanger other people's safety').

4. Statement on Other Side: The paragraph beginning "Many smokers think . . ." on page 2 is an example of statement plus reason on the other side. Some student may suggest part of this paragraph as a REASON FOR. Whether or not this happens, you should point out that it is an example of the special way of stating a reason for. The writer has given a statement on the other side (i.e., ". . . smoking should not be banned. . ."), supported by a reason on the other side (i.e., ". . .because such a ban would take away their human rights"). Then the writer answers the statement and reason on the other side. Read the rest of the paragraph.

5. Supporting Ideas for Reasons: Remind students that it is not enough simply to state a reason. It must be supported. Supporting statements may be (write the following on board):

a. Elaborations: explaining more about the reason.
b. Examples: another way of telling more about the reason.
c. A reason for a reason.

Assign students to three groups and have each group examine one reason in order to identify and summarize the kind of support given. When they have finished the assigned reason, they may examine any other. When discussing their answers, make sure the following points are clear:

a. Reason 1 is supported by giving examples of ways in which smokers spoil the clean environment.

b. Reason 2 is supported by elaborating on, i.e., giving more information about, how smoking is dangerous to the health of both smokers and non-smokers.

c. Reason 3 is supported by giving an example of one careless habit that endangers safety.

d. Point out, or bring out by questioning, that each reason is stated twice: at the beginning of the paragraph, and then again in different words at the end of the paragraph.

6. Conclusion: Finally, ask someone to find and read the CONCLUSION. Draw attention to the statement of belief repeated in the conclusion ("Smoking should not be allowed in public places" and "They should certainly not be allowed to smoke in enclosed public places") and to the intensifying words,

("certainly not"). Point out that the conclusion also repeats in summary form the reasons given above (". . .because it interferes with the right of non-smokers to have a healthy, clean, pleasant environment').

STEP 3: DISCUSSION

If time permits, allow discussion of the two points of view expressed in the two readings, pro and con, on banning smoking. Ask students which reading makes the stronger case. If possible, help them to see that there is some validity in each piece.

READING LESSON NO. 9

TITLE: The Need for Capital Punishment.

AIM: To have students continue to develop their ability to recognize the structure of a persuasive reading.

OBJECTIVES:

1. Students will identify the following structural elements in the reading:

    a. The statement of belief.
    b. Five reasons for.
    c. Supporting ideas for each reason for.
    d. The conclusion.

2. Students will discuss the content of the reading and the extent of its persuasiveness. (Minor time to this.)

STEP 1: INTRODUCTION

Tell students that the topic for today's reading is a very controversial one. Explain the meaning of "capital punishment," i.e., punishment involving the loss of the head (Latin: "caput, capitis" = head) or the loss of life. The following backround information may be of interest.

In earlier times, the death penalty was given for many crimes. For example, in the eighteenth century, a person could be sentenced to death for stealing something worth more than twelve pennies. While twelve pennies would certainly buy more then than it will buy today, this was still a minor crime. Nonetheless, it received the death penalty. (Death sentences were not always carried out. Sometimes the sentence was transmuted to transportation for life, e.g., to New South Wales (Australia).) With the passing of time, the number of crimes for which the death sentence could be imposed became smaller and smaller, until, at last, it could be given only for very serious crimes like murder. Finally, in 1976, it was abolished altogether in Canada. But some people feel very strongly that it should be brought back again for some crimes.

Point out that the question of capital punishment has been a subject of much discussion in Canada in the past six months. Many letters have been written to the editors of Canadian newspapers, and several members of parliament want Prime Minister, Brian Mulroney, to allow a free vote in the House of Commons on this matter. Give as much additional explanation about the House of Commons and free vote as you think relevant. Note that these two readings offer an opportunity for you to discuss certain matters of general interest if you should wish. For example, many think that a referendum should be held on the subject of capital

punishment. You may wish to mention this, and to explain what a referendum is.

Point out that today's reading gives the case for capital punishment; the reading for next time gives the case against capital punishment. Ask if they can think of any reasons for capital punishment. Write reasons given up on the board. Say: "See if any of these reasons are given by the writer; and see how may other reasons the writer gives."

Vocabulary which may need explanation during the reading is: abolish, executed, execution, vicious, multiple, "living-death", Gallop poll, restored.

STEP 2: PERSUASIVE READING

1. Distribute reading: "The Need for Capital Punishment." Display the chart which shows the structure of persuasive discourse.

2. Have children read and discuss the structure of the reading, as described in earlier lessons. Have them mark the following structural elements on their reading:

Statement of Belief: "It is time the death penalty was brought back." Note that the next sentence ("Execution should be a possible punishment for particularly vicious killers") is an elaboration of the statement of belief. It is a different version, as it were, of the statement of belief.

Reason 1: "There are people who have committed such terrible crimes that they do not deserve to live."

Reason 2: "Cost."

Reason 3: ". . . life imprisonment is considered . . .to be just as cruel a punishment as death."

Reason 4: "The work of the police and prison guards is harder and more dangerous if there is no death penalty."

Reason 5: ". . . a big majority of Canadians support it."

Have them discuss the kinds of supporting ideas the writer gives for each reason.

Conclusion, noting especially, the statement of belief, repeated in different words, and the intensifying words as nderlined: ". . .it is essential that

capital punishment be restored as a possible punishment."

STEP 3: DISCUSSION

Discuss the content of the reading, and how persuasive they found it. Which points do they agree with? With which do they disagree? What arguments on the other side can they think of--in preparation for next day's reading.

READING LESSON NO. 10

TITLE: No Capital Punishment.

AIM: To have students continue to develop their ability to recognize the structure of a persuasive reading.

OBJECTIVES:

1. Students will identify the following structural elements in the reading:

    a. The statement of belief.
    b. Three reasons for.
    c. Supporting ideas for each reason for.
    d. Reason on the other side.
    e. The conclusion.

2. Students will discuss the content of the reading and the extent of its persuasiveness. (Minor time to this.)

STEP 1: INTRODUCTION

Remind students that today's reading gives the other side of the case about capital punishment.

Vocabulary which may need explanation during the reading is: reverse, deter.

STEP 2: PERSUASIVE READING

1. Distribute reading: "No Capital Punishment." Display the chart which shows the structure of persuasive discourse.

2. Have children read and discuss the structure of the reading, as described in earlier lessons. Have them mark the following structural elements on their reading:

Statement of Belief: "This (i.e., the bringing back of the death penalty) must never be allowed to happen."

Reason 1: ". . . it turns all of us into killers."

Reason 2: ". . . mistakes are sometimes made."

Reason 3: ". . . it is doubtful that the death penalty really deters people from murdering."

Have them discuss the kinds of supporting ideas the writer gives for each reason.

Reason on the Other Side:
"Particularly dreadful crimes." I.e., these are considered to be a reason for having the death penalty.

Conclusion, noting especially, the statement of belief, repeated in different words, and the intensifying words as underlined: "All thinking people must oppose the reintroduction of the death penalty."

STEP 3: DISCUSSION

Discuss the content of the reading, and how persuasive they found it. Which points do they agree with? With which do they disagree? Which of the two readings did they find most persuasive? If time permits, have a discussion within the group on the question of capital punishment.
preparation for next day's reading.

WRITING LESSON NO. 1

TITLE: No Ban on Smoking.

AIM: To teach students to understand and recognize the various structural elements of persuasive writing.

OBJECTIVES:

1. Students will learn the nature and function of the following structural elements of persuasive writing:

   a. Statement of belief
   b. Reason for
   c. Supporting idea for reason for
   d. Conclusion

2. Students will read the persuasive reading, "No Ban on Smoking" and will identify the above structural elements in the piece.

STEP 1: INTRODUCTION

Talk about occasions when it is important to be able to persuade. The following examples may be used:

a. The summing up by the Crown Prosecutor or the Counsel for the Defence in a trial. This is a persuasive speech which the lawyer has probably written out in preparation for delivering it in court. Point out that the accused person's freedom will often depend on how persuasive the lawyer is in summing up the evidence which has been presented.

b. If you have had bad service from a company--suppose, for example, you have bought a new car, or a computer and it turns out to be a lemon--getting fair treatment often depends on being able to write a letter of complaint in which you persuade the company that they should remedy the situation.

c. Every citizen has the right to express his or her views about any matter at all. This is often done in a Letter to the Editor of a newspaper such as the Vancouver Sun in which the writer tries to persuade other readers to agree with his or her point of view.

d. Another way of expressing your views is to write to your Member of Parliament to express your views about legislation that the Government is planning.

In all of these cases, success depends on being able to state a case with good reasons and supporting ideas. For the next five weeks you are going to learn how to write a persuasive essay.

STEP 2: THE STRUCTURE OF PERSUASIVE DISCOURSE

Say: You have often been told that a story has a beginning, a development which leads up to a climax, and an ending. (Note that this cannot be used if you have not covered this with them.) A piece of persuasive writing is made up of the following. Write the following outline on the chalkboard:

A STATEMENT OF BELIEF:	Usually in first paragraph. Tells what the writer is trying to persuade other people about.
REASON FOR SUPPORT:	There may be 3 or more reasons. Explains more about the reason for. May give examples.
REASON FOR SUPPORT	
REASON FOR SUPPORT	
CONCLUSION:	Comes at the end. Sums up. Often repeats the STATEMENT OF BELIEF in different words and often with an intensifying word or phrase.

STEP 3: PERSUASIVE READING

1. Distribute reading: "No Ban on Smoking." Make sure they understand the meaning of "ban".

2. Statement of Belief: Say: Read the first paragraph and see if you can find the sentence that gives the STATEMENT OF BELIEF. (ANS. "Smoking should not be banned.") Have them underline this sentence, and write in the left hand margin against this line: "Statement of Belief".

3. Reasons For: Say: See if you can find the first reason why smoking should not be banned. (ANS. "Smokers' rights will be taken away.") Have them underline these words, and write in the left hand margin: "Reason 1."

Ask: How does the writer support this reason? They should reply by reading the various other sentences in this second paragraph. Point out that all of this paragraph is really just saying the same thing in different words, i.e., the writer is ELABORATING ON or EXPLAINING what he/she means by the REASON FOR.

Tell them to read the rest of the reading and see how many REASONS FOR they can find. Tell them they will usually find the REASON FOR near the beginning of a paragraph, and supporting statements in the rest of the paragraph.

As students offer the various reasons, after reading the passage, they should underline each reason and write "Reason 2", "Reason 3", etc. in the margin as was done for Reason 1. Sentences to be so marked are as follows:

Reason 2	"Passing laws against smoking is too strong a measure."
Reason 3	"There are other ways of protecting the rights of non-smokers."
Reason 4	"There could be dangerous results from banning smoking in public places."

Draw attention to the "reason markers" at the beginning of reasons 1, 2 and 3: "in the first place," "secondly," "a third reason against such a law."

4. Supporting Ideas: Ask students how the writer supports reasons 2, 3 and 4.

5. Statement on Other Side: The paragraph beginning "Non-smokers often claim . . ." on page 2 requires special treatment. Some student may suggest part of this paragraph as a REASON FOR. Whether or not this happens, you should tell them there is a special and rather clever way of stating a REASON FOR. A writer sometimes makes a STATEMENT ON THE OTHER SIDE (e.g., ". . . smoking should be banned. . ."), supported by a REASON ON THE OTHER SIDE (e.g., ". . .for health reasons"). Then the writer answers the STATEMENT and REASON ON THE OTHER SIDE.

6. Conclusion: Finally, ask someone to find and read the CONCLUSION. Draw attention to the STATEMENT OF BELIEF repeated in the CONCLUSION ("Smoking in public places should definitely not be banned.") and to the intensifying word ("definitely"). Have them write "Conclusion" in the margin against the first line of the last paragraph.

Point out that the rest of the conclusion is made up by repeating, in different words, the main REASONS FOR which have already been stated above.

STEP 4: DISCUSSION AND PREPARATION FOR NEXT LESSON

The remainder of the time may be spent discussing the content of the piece, whether or not it is convincing, etc. Also ask if they can think of any reasons on the other side. List these in abbreviated form. Ask them to suggest a possible statement of belief for the opposite point of view, e.g., "Smoking in public places should be banned."

Note that this activity is in preparation for the next lesson. If possible, save this boardwork for the next day.

WRITING LESSON 2

TOPIC: Smoking should be banned.

AIM: To have students, cooperatively, write a piece in the persuasive mode using the structural elements taught in Lesson 1.

OBJECTIVES

1. Students will revise the nature and function of the following structural elements of persuasive writing:

   a. Statement of belief
   b. Reason for
   c. Supporting ideas for each reason for
   d. Conclusion.

2. Students will cooperate with the teacher to do the following:

   a. Provide a statement of belief on the given topic.
   b. Suggest several reasons for the statement of belief.
   c. Suggest several supporting ideas for each reason for.
   d. Expand the statement of belief into the introductory paragraph.
   e. Compose a paragraph presenting the first reason along with supporting ideas.

3. Each student will write one paragraph presenting an additional reason along with supporting ideas.

4. From the paragraphs written, the class will select paragraphs to add to the class essay.

5. The class will compose a conclusion together.

6. The whole composition will be entered into the computer and printed for distribution to the group at the next class. (If possible.)

STEP 1: INTRODUCTION

Say: Last time we read an essay that tried to persuade us that smoking in public places should not be banned. Today we are going to compose together a persuasive piece which takes the opposite point of view. (N.B. If you started this task at the end of the last lesson, you should modify the following instructions accordingly.)

STEP 2: REVISING THE PERSUASIVE SCHEMA

Display chart with persuasion schema, and, by question and answer, have them review the function and nature of each element. Ask such questions as: What is a STATEMENT OF BELIEF? (ANS: A statement that tells what it is that the writer is trying to persuade other people about.) Where would you expect to find a STATEMENT OF BELIEF? (ANS: At the beginning of the essay. Perhaps the first sentence. Certainly the first paragraph. Note that some child may remember that an intensified statement of belief also occurs in the conclusion.)

What work does a REASON FOR do? (ANS: It gives a reason for the STATEMENT OF BELIEF.) Remind them that each REASON FOR along with its SUPPORTING IDEAS should be in a separate paragraph.

What is a CONCLUSION? (ANS: It sums up the argument that the writer has made.) Where would you expect to find the CONCLUSION? (ANS: In the last paragraph.)

STEP 3: GROUP COMPOSITION

a. The Statement of Belief.

Ask students to suggest an appropriate statement of belief for today's composition. Take several suggestions, e.g., "Smoking in public places should be banned," "I am opposed to people smoking in public," "Smoking in public should be made illegal," etc. Divide large chalkboard in two. On one side, write a selected statement of belief as the beginning of the composition. On the other side, put REASONS FOR as a heading.

b. Reasons for

Ask students for suggested reasons to support the statement of belief. As they are suggested, list them in abbreviated form, and leave space between reasons for supporting ideas to be suggested and written up later. When several reasons have been suggested, ask for ideas which would support or elaborate on the various reasons. (For ideas, you may refer to the reading, "No Smoking", but students must not have access to this reading.)

c. Completing Opening Paragraph

Point out that the first paragraph should have two, or, preferably, three sentences. Sometimes the sentences will tell a little more about the statement of belief. Often, the first paragraph will give some hint about the reasons which are going to follow in the second paragraph. Add a sentence or two to complete the first paragraph.

d. Composing Second Paragraph--Reason 1

Now, with students' help, and using notes made on the right

hand side of the board, compose and write on the board a paragraph dealing with the reason which the group considers to be the most important. Point out that some good ways to start the paragraph are: "My first reason for opposing smoking in public is . . .," "In the first place, . . .," "One important reason for banning smoking is . . ."

STEP 4: INDIVIDUAL COMPOSITION OF PARAGRAPHS

Now assign various students to write a paragraph for one of the other reasons listed on the board. Allow ten minutes, then share paragraphs aloud. Compose a group composition by selecting good paragraphs.

STEP 5: GROUP CONCLUSION

Work as a group to write conclusion. This should be composed of an intensified, restated statement of belief, and an abbreviated repetition of reasons. Tell students various ways of intensifying. (See under "Conclusion" at the end of the "General Introduction.")

If possible, the group composition should be entered on the computer and printed for distribution at the next class. Perhaps I can help with this? Is there a computer in the school on which the individuals whose paragraphs were selected can enter their own paragraphs?

WRITING LESSON 3

TOPIC: It is wrong to keep whales in captivity.

AIM: To have students practise writing in the persuasive mode using the structural elements taught previously.

OBJECTIVES:

1. Students will recall and describe the structural elements in persuasive discourse.
2. Students will brainstorm reasons pro and con on the following topic: "It is wrong to keep whales in captivity in an aquarium."
3. Students will write a persuasive piece taking either the pro side or the con side for the above topic.

STEP 1: Revising the Persuasion Schema

Draw students' attention to the chart showing the persuasion schema. By question and answer revise information previously taught about the various elements.

STEP 2: Brainstorming Reasons Pro and Con

Write the following question on the board: Do you think that whales should be kept in captivity in an aquarium?

Underneath, write the headings, Pro and Con, on each side of the board. Explain the meanings of headings. Ask students to contribute reasons pro and con, and write these briefly, in point form, on the board under the respective headings.

STEP 3: Writing the Composition

Ask students to decide which side they are on. Ask those on the pro side to suggest a statement of belief for that side. Take several suggestions. Ask those on the con side to suggest a statement of belief for that side. Take several suggestions.

Now ask students to write a persuasive composition for the side they have chosen. Allow the rest of the period for them to write a legible first draft to be shared with a peer in the next lesson.

WRITING LESSON 4

AIM: To have students revise and polish their "whale" compositions.

OBJECTIVES:

1. Each student will make verbal responses to the composition of a peer.

2. Each student will revise and polish his/her composition.

STEP 1: Responding to Peers

Assign students to partners, preferably a partner who has written on the other side. Students should respond to the following:

1. Does he/she have all of the following:
   a. a statement of belief;
   b. several reasons, each reason in a separate paragraph;
   c. a reason marker for each reason;
   d. supporting ideas for each reason;
   e. a conclusion, including an intensified statement of belief?

2. Which do you think is his/her most persuasive reason?

3. Can you make suggestions for improvement?

STEP 2: Revising

Allow the rest of the class for students to complete their revised compositions to be turned in at the end of the period. If time allows (though it probably will not) have one composition for each side read aloud to the class, and invite them to comment on the persuasiveness of it.

RESPONDING

If possible, before next lesson, select good or interesting examples of statements of belief, reasons with support, conclusons, etc., to use as illustrations in the next lesson.